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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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SOME POPULATION STATISTICS AND THE PROBLEMS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Carroll V. Newsom

The population of the United States has grown steadily since its colonization. However, starting in the late 1920's, the birth rate in this country started diminishing at an alarming rate. In fact, from a birth rate in 1920 of 24 per thousand population there was a decline to an annual rate of less than 17 per thousand during several years of the mid-Thirties. Simultaneously during the depression decade of the Thirties, immigration to this country virtually ceased. As a consequence, the net numerical increase in the population of this country during 1930-40 was smaller than in any decade since 1860-70, and percentage-wise it was the smallest since records have been kept. As some persons will recall, this situation led many students of the census to predict some twenty years ago that the United States was approaching a population figure of considerable stability.

The many serious effects upon the contemporary life of this country of the depressed birth rate of the Thirties have received little attention. A few illustrations will suffice. Whereas in 1940 this country had a population in the 18-21 age bracket, for instance, of about nine and three-fourths million persons, the figure was less than eight and one half million in 1953 and also in 1954, an amazing drop of over one and a quarter million. It will be 1960 before we shall again have approximately as many youth in the 18-21 age bracket as we had, for example, in 1940. Thus in very recent years empty seats in our high school classrooms have been common, and most colleges and universities have faced serious problems in the recruitment of students. Even more important, however, is the fact that we have been struggling with critical manpower shortages in virtually every professional and vocational area, the major reason being, as I have indicated, that we have been forced from a manpower pool that is considerably smaller than that to which our social and economic life

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had previously been geared. Consequently, the profession of nursing, for example, has been forced to compete for new personnel against the profession of teaching and against other professions of especial appeal to women; the cry of "teacher-shortage" is familiar; industry has attempted to maintain its essential technical activities by paying fantastic salaries to engineering graduates, and the increased use of automation has become an actual necessity; in general, the competition for young people has been by far the most severe in the history of this country. Of course, the competitive situation has been intensified by the personnel demands of our military forces; one can well be thankful that this country has not been involved during the past three or four years in extensive military operations.

Another interesting consequence of the recent decrease in the number of young adults has been the corresponding unprecedented decrease in the marriage rate. Whereas there were nearly 2,300,000 marriages in this country in 1946, the figure in recent years has dropped to less than 1,500,000, which is only about 65 per cent of the number previously named. Because of the notable decline in the creation of new family units, it appears that economists might well give greater attention to the possible early decrease in the demand for new housing facilities and the consequent effect upon our economy.

The present, continuing high birth rate in the United States, upon which comments will shortly be made, is due essentially during the past few years to the amazing growth in the size of the average family of recent parents. However, one can well speculate how long the present birth rate can be maintained in view of the considerable decline in the number of marriages; perhaps this country is destined again to enter at least a short period of low birth rate which will alter the Nation's social and economic life some 20 to 25 years hence.

A continuation of the analysis of birth statistics for this country, especially after the depression Thirties, reveals that by 1940 there was a definite upward trend in the birth rate. However, the most remarkable upsurge took place after the conclusion of World War II. In 1945, the birth rate was 19.5 per thousand population; in 1946, the ratio was 23.8; and in 1947, it was an amazing 25.8. Since 1947 there has been only a slight drop in the rate, computed upon a national basis. Thus, this country is presently a participant in the phenomenon of rapid population growth that is common to most of the world. A distinguished scientist is alleged to have said recently that this country, and the entire world, should be more fearful of the present "population explosion" than of the possibility of atomic explosions.

In a country such as the United States with its great regional variations it is inevitable that the recent growth in birth rate would not be uniform throughout the country. A recent report by the Fund for the Advancement of Education, entitled *Teachers for Tomorrow*, states: "In California, for example, the percentage increase in the number of births between 1940 and 1952 was nearly three times the U. S. average, and in Oregon and Washington it was more than double. In most of the Southern states, with Florida and Texas conspicuous exceptions, the percentage rise was far less than the U. S. average, and in two states, Oklahoma and Arkansas, the number of births actually declined." Obviously, therefore, the nature of the educational planning that must be a consequence of these statistical analyses will vary from region to region.

When one considers only New York State statistics, it is determined rather simply that under the assumption that there will be no change in the percent of students graduating from high school in the years ahead, the 116,000 high school graduates of 1955 in New York State should increase about 35 percent by 1960 to 157,000; increase about 90 percent by 1965 to 220,000; and increase about 98 percent by 1970 to 230,000. Nassau and Suffolk Counties on Long Island will be the area in the State where the greatest growth in the number of high school graduates will take place; in these two counties; according to the most conservative estimates, there will be a rise of 113 percent by 1960, 276 percent by 1965, and 378 percent by 1970; that is, there will be a numerical increase from 9900 high school graduates in 1955 to 47,000 high school graduates by 1970.

Along with the great, anticipated increase in the number of high school graduates it is also reasonable to assume a simultaneous increase in the percent of high school graduates who desire to continue their education. In New York State the ratio of persons attending some kind of higher educational institution to the college age group has followed a long-term upward trend and has not fallen below 38 percent since 1950, being 40.6 percent for 1953. The curve that displays this trend seems to be leveling off at about 43 percent, but this figure is considerably less than predictions made recently by some educators, notably by Dr. John Gardner, President of the Carnegie Foundation.

Obviously, therefore, the anticipated "deluge" of college students, starting in the late years of the present decade, represents the major contemporary problem with which the colleges and universities must be concerned, and without delay. We can meet the demands that are going to be made upon us by merely crowding more students into classrooms and dormitories, by hiring hordes of student assistants,

and by employing all the other expedients of which we saw a small sample after World War II. On the other hand, the problems of education on the post-secondary level can be faced critically to the end that we attempt to design a program that will provide maximum benefits to the youth of this nation. I propose the latter; that is, I propose that we take full advantage of the opportunity that the present emergency makes available to us to review carefully the entire structure of higher education, including its purposes and its methods.

A first, and obvious, question to be raised, as a part of any sound planning for the future, pertains to the interests and abilities of high school graduates who intend to continue their studies. Recently, Dr. Philip A. Cowen, coordinator of research for the State University of New York, completed a study of the educational interests of virtually all the high school graduates of the class of 1953 in eleven countries of New York State. He found that of those students planning full-time post-secondary studies, nearly one third expected to pursue programs of less than four years in length. This is significant; it is indicative of the fact that in the East, as well as in the West, the value of two-year programs, chiefly of a so-called terminal nature, is being recognized to an increasing extent by both students and employers.

Perhaps of even greater significance for this discussion is Dr. Cowen's analysis of those students who expected to attend four-year institutions. Certainly no modern educator would advocate rigid adherence to some psychological index, such as the intelligence quotient, as a basis for admission to college. Nevertheless, there is considerable agreement that an intelligence quotient of 110 may be accepted as representing a critical score in the determination of those students who can derive satisfaction from four-year college attendance; most students having IQ's below such a score have great difficulty with college work that demands a high standard of achievement. Yet, among those students in Cowen's study who expected to pursue four-year programs with a major in business, for example, approximately 45 percent had IQ's below 110. Nearly a quarter of those enrolling for programs in the liberal arts possessed scores below the critical level, and 39 percent of those taking courses in teacher education were in the doubtful area of competence as measured by the intelligence tests.

An examination of Dr. Cowen's complete findings forces one to question the guidance that has directed so many students into traditional four-year programs of study; the high rate of failure among college students and the resulting heartaches and frustrations attest to the fallacies in present tendencies that encourage students to enroll

in studies for which they have little aptitude. It would seem to be apparent that both the secondary schools and the colleges must provide better guidance to their students, and a greater diversity of educational opportunities needs to be created to meet the varied needs of our student population. It may well be that the major expansion in higher educational facilities during the next decade should be in terms of more one-year and two-year programs of a specialized nature.

Another facet of the problem presently under discussion is revealed by Cowen's findings that nearly 20 percent of the high school graduates in his study who have IQ's of 130 and over did not expect to attend any kind of post-secondary institution. Nearly 40 percent of those having IQ's between 110 and 130 planned no additional study after high school graduation. It is not easy to provide an adequate explanation of the disquieting fact that such a large number of capable young people discontinue their formal education at such an early age. The economic factor is certainly significant. In addition, however, there is growing recognition that motivation is a fundamental factor. The recent Report entitled, "Who Should Go To College," by Hollinshead, gives considerable attention to the factor of motivation, and makes the important observation that "motivation to attend college does not bloom suddenly upon graduation from high school. It starts far down in the grades, and if a higher proportion of able young people are to attend college, guidance and motivation must begin at an early age."

The task of providing adequate instruction to the large numbers of students enrolled in the future may well prove to be the most challenging problem faced by the colleges and universities. Dael Wolfe, in the book, *America's Resources of Specialized Talent*, estimates that the number of faculty members needed in institutions of higher education in this country will rise from 200,000 to 268,000 in 1960, to 350,000 in 1965, and 414,000 in 1970. In New York State, institutions of higher education have employed in recent years about 22,000 faculty members. To maintain in the future the student-faculty ratio of today will require in this State an increase of about 10,000 teachers by 1965 and about 16,000 by 1970, exclusive of replacements.

The initial impact of increased enrollments will be felt several years before there will be a substantial increase in the enrollment of the graduate schools, from which college teachers must come. This situation is accentuated, of course, by the fact that the very high birth rates of the last decade and a half were preceded by exceptionally low birth rates over a substantial period of time. In fact, college

and university administrative officers must plan upon a continuing shortage of instructional staff; at no time in the foreseeable future will there be even a close approximation to a sufficient number of qualified college and university instructors, evaluated according to present standards, if there is insistence upon present classroom techniques, traditional faculty-student ratios, and so on. This predicament will not be too serious in a few academic areas, where more persons are being educated for college positions than can be placed. On the other hand, in some academic subjects, notably in the sciences, in engineering, and in mathematics, a severe shortage of instructional personnel exists even at the present time, and in such areas an actual breakdown of instructional services is a possibility within the next decade.

A year ago, Dr. Arthur Adams, President of the American Council on Education, posed for American educators the question, "Are we sufficiently resourceful to find improved ways to accommodate more students with limited money, with a shortage of qualified teachers, and still maintain justifiable standards of educational accomplishment?" Then he continued by asserting, "It is striking to me that our educational institutions have contributed enormously to the development and improvement of techniques and devices which have accelerated the production of our economy. Yet education itself has not taken advantage of these same techniques and devices in carrying out its mission. . . . I would not for a moment suggest that we consider a mechanistic system of instruction which would leave the teacher out of the picture. But I would suggest that with all of the questions which have been raised about teacher effectiveness, together with the almost certain shortage of qualified teachers in the next ten years, we should give real attention to the ways in which technological developments in communication might improve the qualified teacher's effectiveness."

It is notable that Dr. Adams emphasizes the necessity of learning how to "improve the qualified teacher's effectiveness." The resourceful and imaginative administrator of the future will be willing to pay premium salaries to the few members of his teaching staff who possess undoubted reputation, but the question to which he must then have a realistic answer is, "How can full value be obtained from such professors?" Obviously there is no unique reply to such a question. Dr. Adams has indicated a possible approach to an answer, that is, through the use of television and through the better use of audio-visual aids such as teaching audio-records and films. In addition, there must be more effective utilization assistants and part-time instructors. Other approaches to the solution of the problem will be

suggested by a better understanding of the learning process itself, which undoubtedly is intensely personal. To be specific, the educated man is really a self-educated man; all of our educational machinery provides little more than the necessary stimulus and inspiration. Thus, it seems inevitable in the future that many new schemes for the encouragement of a student's self-development will become academically acceptable. In fact, it is quite conceivable as some educators have predicted, that the next decade will see changes of a revolutionary nature in the academic operation of our institutions of higher learning. Certainly no period in the history of this country has provided a greater challenge to the educator who has the capacity to grapple with some fundamental problems of far-reaching consequence.

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EFFECTIVENESS AS A VALUE CONCEPT

George E. Axtelle

Increasing interdependence of peoples and interaction of cultures has made us one world in fact. What happens to that world depends fundamentally upon the possibilities of cooperation, compromise and mutual persuasion. These possibilities are contingent upon the development of a common ground of values which would be applicable and relevant to all peoples and cultures. Conflicting religious, cultural and metaphysical orientations requires that any common ground of values be defined in secular terms which avoid particular religious, cultural or metaphysical commitment.

Such a common ground would seem to rest upon three assumptions: 1. All cultures and peoples are worthy of respect; 2. Human life is its own justification, hence the values of life are to be justified by their consequence in human life; 3. "Nothing but the best, the richest and fullest experience possible is good enough for man." These assumptions are operational in character. They serve as a necessary basis of mutual respect and cooperation both within and between cultures and groups within cultures. They are neutral with respect to ultimate commitments, because these are the basic sources of disagreement and conflict among peoples and cultures.

This paper is an effort to develop an operational approach to values which might be intercultural, in as much as it would be applicable and relevant to all cultures. It suggests a value outlook which would serve the basic needs of all peoples, their needs for survival and effectiveness. It would be similarly applicable to individuals and groups within the several cultures. My problem is how *all* men may have the richest value experience possible, how they can experience values in their various dimensions, number, variety, intensity, subtlety, massiveness, the more the better, for all men. Since men live in institutions and cultures and since these condition the possibilities of value experience, the problem is also how cultures can survive and prosper, how they can be most effective both as cultures and in promoting the value experience of their members.

I do not identify values with what ought to be valued, for then we would have no appropriate term for what men do value. (By values I mean whatever men do actually value, prize, desire. These are the crucial data of value problems). What men ought to value, is the problem, and I make the preliminary assumption that they ought to value those conditions which make an abundance and

variety of values possible. I am interested in the conditions which maximize value experience for all men.

I conceive effectiveness as precisely the capacity for self-realization, self-fulfillment, the realization of values. Effectiveness differs from efficiency in that efficiency is concerned with the economy of means in the realization of particular ends, whereas effectiveness is the maximization of ends with available resources. How effective anything is depends upon how well it utilizes them to maximize its effects. Effectiveness involves, the person, the organization, the institution, the culture, as a whole.

Evolution in man is cultural rather than organic. Cultures survive and perish. Individual survival depends much more upon cultural than biological factors. Moreover, individual survival or failure has little effect upon the germ plasm of the species. Whether cultures survive or perish depends upon their adaptive values. In their survival capacities cultures differ greatly, not only among each other, but from time to time. Institutions and cultures may be judged by their effectiveness in meeting the challenges of their environment. These challenges come not only from without, but also from within. A culture is effective to the degree that the different aspects of the culture sustain and support one another. A culture is weak to the degree that it is torn by internal conflict.

A value problem is one in which we are confronted with a set of mutually contradictory values. Its solution lies in a consideration of the consequences of various alternative courses of action, and in hitting upon a course of action which will maximize the values of that situation. This may mean the rejection of certain values which may have clamored for realization, the modification of others, and it may be the emergence of new values of which we were hitherto unaware. The criterion of consequences enjoins us to view our proposed acts and policies broadly in terms of their total possible effects upon us as individuals and as a society.

But since consequences are so manifold and often obscure and remote it is difficult to assess their net import. We may consider a problem solved upon the basis of the more immediate and obvious consequences, only to discover that we have failed to anticipate consequences of a serious character which were not obvious, or which for some other reason we had failed to take into account. A ground map of certain general conditions essential to effectiveness would help us discern these more remote and less obvious consequences, which, if ignored might lead us to disaster.

THE CONDITIONS OF EFFECTIVENESS:

Cultural evolution has occurred in much the same way as has

organic evolution. Certain of man inventions, his tools, institutions, practices and beliefs have survived at the expense of others because of their superior adaptive values. Those have survived which were more effective in meeting his needs, in realizing his values, which gave him greater power and control over his environment. The program in moral ideas and practices has been one with growth in effectiveness. Slavery and serfdom have given way to free labor, the status of women and children and the afflicted and infirm have been elevated, and the claims of individuality have been increasingly acknowledged. These developments have taken place on grounds both of effectiveness and morality. They made for both increased effectiveness of the general culture and of the individual members. They were also growth in the possibility of value experience.

The evolution of moral insight has been a crucial aspect of cultural evolution. For moral insights have been insights into certain general conditions of effectiveness which because of their generality have been obscure. The Greek search for Justice and the Hebrew search for righteousness were both efforts to identify the general conditions men must observe if they are to lead a rich and full life. The rest of this paper is an effort to identify a number of these general conditions in operational terms which are applicable to all peoples and culture. The earlier insights were stated in hortatory and imperative terms, because it was not clear that they were the fruit of experience. The present paper states them in purely operational terms because the growth of knowledge makes their status clear. They have much the same relation to conduct and social policy that the principles of mechanics have to engineering. For that reason they are universally applicable, yet relevant to the variety of cultures.

1. *Dynamic equilibrium*: A system possesses dynamic equilibrium when its parts or aspects are in reciprocal adjustment to one another so that they tend to sustain and support one another, hence the system itself. In an organism this is homeostatis, in a person, integration, in a culture, harmony, in a work of art, balance and unity. In all it is effective vigor. Its absence leads to disintegration and loss of vigor.

The condition of dynamic equilibrium is equally essential to living organisms, communities, institutions, societies, and cultures. It applies equally to economics, morals, public policy, mental hygiene and education. In each case vigor and health depends upon the maintenance of such relations among the members of the system that each tends to support and maintain the others. Health requires a unity of the parts in the whole, but such a unity that the parts determine the whole as much as the whole determines the parts. It requires a

unity of integration rather than imposition.

2. *Respect for the intrinsic value of persons*: Men are profoundly social creatures. They can realize their own ends more fully only as they respect one another as ends in themselves. Mutual respect is an essential condition of effectiveness both individually and socially. Its opposites, hatred, contempt, segregation, exploitation, frustrate the realization of values for all concerned and hence they are profoundly destructive of all effectiveness.

3. *Mutuality*: Man's capacity for mutuality makes him a social creature. It is the basis of language and thought, of social organization and enterprise. It is the source of objectivity, for objectivity is the perspective of the universal community. Man's progress has been unnnquely the result of his growing capacity for organized social action. Competition, far from being the first law of nature, is destructive unless carried on within a broader framework of common purpose.

4. *Communication*: Communication makes man human. It is the basic medium of mutuality. Barriers to communication are barriers to mutuality, to common action. Thought itself is an outgrowth of communication. A live creature is in constant interaction with its environment. Man's environment is essentially social. He can interact with that environment effectively, and control it, individually or collectively, only in so far as he can know the realities of that environment. This depends upon intercommunication. The great virtue of democracy is that it facilitates general intercommunication. The sciences themselves are the product of communication. For the sciences are distinguished by the fact that their appeal for validation is to the universal community. The sciences can exist and prosper only as there is free communication throughout the scientific world. But they further require interpretation and transmission to the lay world through science reporting and popular science writing.

5. *Rationality, intelligence, science*: The enormous power of the western world is directly a consequence of its science, its tested theory, its growth in rationality and objectivity. However its achievements in the arts of production threaten our existence because our rationality in the realms of values, of social policy and objectives is so retarded, being to a great extent, prescientific, pre-industrial, pre-democratic. There is danger that our world will get out of hand and destroy us.

Rationality or intelligence involves not only the capacity to control our environment, but also the capacity to reconstruct and control ourselves. The control of environment derives from an objective knowledge of it and the way its various aspects are inter-connected. Control of ourselves derives from the capacity to view the meaning

of our various habits and impulses for one another in specific situations, the capacity to maintain a dynamic equilibrium among them. This in no small part involves the capacity to see ourselves as others see us and to see them as they see themselves, and in this, to achieve effective communication and mutuality with them.

Science as the highest form of rationality yet achieved demonstrates its enormous effectiveness. The great challenge is to extend its method and power to the determination and specification with increasing precision of the general conditions of effectiveness as well as those conditions in technical and specialized areas.

6. *Variety, contract, adventure*: The values inherent in a system depends upon the range and variety of values which it embraces. Contrasting values intensify and heighten one another. Variety provides a wider range of selection and experimentation. It also gives an effect of massiveness to the whole. Conformity and uniformity lead to monotony, loss of vigor and value. Achieved perfection must be recognized as the end of a line of development and if long continued, becomes stale and monotonous and leads to more repetition and loss of spirit. Hence the possibilities of adventure must always be kept open. Only a continuing spirit of originality, resourcefulness and adventure can keep either individuals or cultures spiritually alive and effective. Individuality is a continuous creation of new values and new possibilities, making for new alternatives, for selection, and a richer more vivid and massive experience of values for both individuals and cultures.

7. *Material Resources*: Man cannot live by bread alone, but he must have bread. Moral and spiritual qualities are not disembodied. They have a material basis. Our power for good or ill in this world depends in part upon our material resources. Man is a physico-chemico-bio-social creature. These can be separated only in abstraction.

This is not to imply that there is a necessary relation between material resources and effectiveness. A simple people with sufficient resources to meet the requirements of their way of life may be highly effective so long as they are isolated from others with superior resources. On the other hand, a society may achieve great wealth and power without the necessary intellectual and moral equipment to make the best use of it. However, it should not be forgotten that great cultures have generally rested upon extensive material resources. Nor must it be forgotten that three of the great scourges of man, poverty, ignorance and disease, spring from poverty of material resources. I elaborate upon the obvious only because a superficial moral theory depreciates material values in the name of spirituality.

I have indicated but a few conditions which may illustrate the argument. There is no thought that these are exhaustive, or for that matter adequately specified. The identification and specification of the conditions of effectiveness is the task of continuous critical and empirical inquiry, to which many branches of learning may legitimately contribute. Each of the empirical sciences have become independent disciplines, once their subject-matter, problems and methods were adequately defined. It is the hypothesis of this paper that problems of value once properly defined, and their appropriate subject matter indicated, are susceptible to empirical and critical treatment; that indeed, here is the domain of a new empirical science. In view of the enormous contributions of the natural sciences to technology, medicine and agriculture, such a science should contribute equally to the domain of morals, mental health, and public affairs. Our civilization has become much too complex to be dependent upon the moral guidance of merely conventional and non-scientific value thinking.

Our survival as a culture requires an intelligence in matters of value comparable in realism and power to the intelligence we use in science and technology. Until we develop an intellectual method in matters of mental health, morals and public policy as effective as that we employ in engineering, we will continue to be overwhelmed by problems created by our advancing technology. We have enormous powers and resources, but unless we learn how to use them as effectively as we have learned how to create them they will overwhelm us.

The seat of our intellectual difficulty lies in the fact that we have conceived the problem of values as a problem of ends, ends which were incommensurable and incomparable. Hence we had to have an arbiter to arrange these in some order of precedence. It is my argument that the problem is not one of ends but of means. The business of living is to live, to live abundantly and to realize life values as fully as possible. The problem is not to what end, but *how*? What are the essential means to the maximization of life? It is a problem of method and norms, and the norms are to be determined in the same way that we have determined the norms of agriculture, science, art, and medicine. For the norms are simply the conditions required to achieve certain results. And these conditions can be discovered empirically. Once we see this, it become obvious that scientific inquiry is required to determine the conditions of effectiveness for human life and culture.

Democracy is an illusive term, but if we admit that democracy implies those institutions and forms of association which maximize

human values, then the conditions of effectiveness become the criteria of democracy. By the same token they are the focal values of education. They supply the criteria of both a democratic society and an effective character. While specifically relevant to democracy, however, the conditions of effectiveness are relevant for other cultures. For at the same time that they are the criteria of democracy they offer other cultures the criteria by which they may increase their vigor and maximize their values, both as cultures and as individuals. Democracy is something more than the idiosyncrasy of a particular culture. Like the sciences, democracy has an inter-cultural relevance that frees it from the context of any particular culture.

Summary:

It is my belief that the concept of effectiveness provides a basis for value theory which can lead to control in human affairs comparable to the control which science and technology provide in production, agriculture, and medicine. It provides an authority and sanction as persuasive and compelling as are the principles of mechanics in engineering. When the whole body of organic energies finds ways of expression that are fulfilling, they become dynamics in the achievement of human values. Ideals and values then have the human resources necessary to their realization.

I have avoided discussing either pleasure or happiness because they are not susceptible to objective treatment. Instead I have been concerned with consequences which are for the most part public and observable. I have also avoided cultural relativism by dealing with conditions which are relevant to all cultures. Respecting all but limited to none, they are equally applicable to all. Such an empirical approach as I suggest can cross cultural frontiers as easily as science now does. This approach, far from dissolving moral bonds, is even more rigorous in its requirements. For arbitrary theological or metaphysical authority it provides the authority of experience, of consequences, from which there is no indulgence save more and better consequences.

Read at the American Association for the Advancement of Science at Atlanta. December 29, 1955.

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IMPACT OF THE PRESENT ECONOMY ON OUR EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE

Maurice P. Moffatt & Stephen G. Rich

Our school and college population shows every sign of reaching an unprecedented size, of comprising in the next decade a hitherto unbelievable proportion of the young people of the nation. For this reason alone, without needing to consider others, education has become one of our major responsibilities. We think of education as a dynamic social process which prepares the individual for living in both the present and the future.

The population of our nation has shown steady growth since the turn of the century. The recent decades have produced sharp rises. As of October 1, 1955 the population was placed at 166,022,000. This population rise is due to the higher birth rate, immigration, and the increased span of life. These factors will have a decided effect upon educational needs and upon the complexion of society in general. This in turn will challenge those who plan for the welfare of the people.

The swift advance of technology is not only a desirable, but an essential part of our civilization. We look to technological progress to contribute more and more to the ease, comfort, convenience, and enjoyment of our ever-increasing population. This produces a higher standard of living. This standard of living is not merely raised, but its pattern is changed. For instance, air travel, the change from coal to the gas-fired heating furnace and the electric cookstove, automatic instant telephone communication to any distance, the conquest of such diseases as pneumonia and tuberculosis, and the savings of effort caused by our new synthetic fabrics such as orlon . . . from many hundreds of cases that might equally well be mentioned.

These technological advances confront the American people, to an extent more than that felt in any other part of the world save Canada, with the problem of adjusting ourselves to a way of life that is not merely different from the past, but is itself in the process of rapid further change. All of us need to know the changes that have to be made in our own actions to enable ourselves to reap the full benefits of this new age. Almost equally important is to educate adequately people old and young to sustain and promote this "New Civilization."

Continuous education is the necessary means to help solve many of these adjustments. However, such new learnings cannot be devel-

oped solely through our colleges and universities. No matter how well undertaken, college training reaches too few persons and often too late. The impact of scientific and technological progress requires urgently that action be taken at earlier levels of education. The high school would appear to be the key point for such foundation knowledge.

The responsibility for educating himself to the needs of the modern age is of course that of each individual. This need not be a burden: in fact, it may well be most enjoyable. Some of the means which the adult finds available are: attending lectures or lecture courses, relevant programs on television and radio; readings, travel, and informal inquiries on his own part. The modern public libraries offer much assistance in most localities.

We do, as a nation, believe in education. We do certainly try to provide as many young people as possible with as extended a program of education as they can acquire. One sign of this is the rapid growth of the college-going portion of our younger population. Scholarships provided by industries, the G.I. bills which enabled many a young veteran to attain higher education, and similar provisions of various avenues, all point this way.

As a whole, the nation is conscious of the impending shortage of engineers. Means to remedy this deficit are actively being discussed, while existing schools use their facilities to the maximum. Industries in many cases have found it essential and profitable to undertake in-service training of the engineering staff, especially on the practical side. In this case, the changing economy, calling for many more technically trained individuals than were previously to be had, is thus the prime mover. A similar situation is hardly recognized, outside the discussions of administrators, as existing in teaching. Yet the impending manpower shortage of qualified teachers at almost every level is surely of the same magnitude as that in engineering.

The arts colleges actually function to an extent as pre-professional schools. Many of them, we regret to report, seem to lag in recognizing this as their social justification, and so fulfil their major service unwittingly. This is no condemnation, but rather mention of an interesting case of largely unrecognized impact of the technological changes at the beginning of this article. The rise of the junior college, now an accepted portion of our educational structure, is probably motivated ultimately by some recognition of this function. We infer this because the proportion of junior college students going on to vocational or professional education is conspicuously large. Thus one impact of our changing economy, which might not have been easily recognized, is here apparent.

All this requires finances.

Previous needs for funds have been on a different, and much smaller scale. However, increased financial responsibilities and maintenance costs, together with vastly increased enrollments, have produced a new demand for additional aid. How is the problem being met?

One trend, not adequately recognized, is that the colleges of all sorts are producing an increasing number of alumni who are able to help their almae maters with gifts. This development is not wholly the product of the colleges themselves, but in at least equal measure an outcome of the flourishing, changing, advancing economy in which we live. Within the alumni of any one school, everyone knows that his college or university is forever soliciting funds more than ever hitherto. Likewise, success in securing contributions is conspicuously better than at any previous period. But there is as yet little recognition that this situation is general.

Each college or university and its alumni think they are a special case, needing extra help from the old graduates. This help, greatly appreciated, has been applied to necessary extensions of the services the institution renders, and which are nowadays regarded as essential. Additional scholarships, new facilities such as student unions and special libraries, additional dormitory and classroom building, laboratories for new subjects such as aeronautics, and increased research facilities, have all thus been provided. Yet hardly one institution thus benefitted, realizes that every other similar unit has been able to make the same successful appeals to the corresponding body of alumni.

Non-academic foundations of various sorts, and industries, have likewise made substantial monetary contributions to specific institutions of education. We notice that, in some cases, the contributions of this sort have been made to promote studies in the technological field with which the donor body is itself primarily concerned. This has had a beneficial result, in that new fields of advanced study have often been opened. Let us, however, not forget that at times certain older and perhaps basal subjects have been insufficiently favored during this development. Thus, it is easier to get funds given for agricultural technology instruction or research, than it is to secure even a small portion of such moneys for development of a department of the basal science of botany. A technology seems to attract donors more than its contributory pure science.

Naturally, the late 1955 Ford Foundation grant of \$10 million dollars to a large group of higher education institutions has been a conspicuous case. Yet reports at the end of that year show that the

total of all other gifts to college-level institutions was \$507 million in the same period. We cite this in order to emphasize the magnitude of the social response to the need to finance the improvement of education at this level. This emphasis, on the actual response to the need which had been felt, we would rate as the most visible impact among all those mentioned in this article.

The urgency of the impact, and its continual growth, is strikingly evident from the U. S. Office of Education's recent report that the total enrolment in American colleges and universities in 1955 has reached 2,716,000 students. This increase, 8.6% above the corresponding figure for 1954, speaks for itself. A further sign of the impact is the repeated increase in tuition fees on the part of many colleges during recent years. To care for the students despite these increased charges, the number of scholarships and fellowships has been augmented in substantially the same degree, in this same period.

The establishment of new colleges, to care for the urgent demand for higher education, is likewise a conspicuous feature of this period. This growth is not confined to areas hitherto without collegiate facilities, but has also taken place in metropolitan centers which might seem to have been adequately supplied. Of this latter case, the service performed by newly-established Brandeis University for the Boston metropolitan area is probably the most convenient case that we can cite.

At the high-school level the same impacts are productive of problems essentially similar. The method of meeting them is, however, vastly different. As secondary education is overwhelmingly in local public hands, the normal processes of raising current funds and providing for capital expenditures operate, but on an unprecedentedly large scale. Here it is safe to say that the great extension of scope of education resulting from impact of the developing technological age is fully recognized by the professional staffs in almost every district. But only an informed minority of the public served by the schools realizes the change. This unfortunate dichotomy is rapidly disappearing, so that a fair number of school units already are free of it. The march of events is educating the school-supporting public.

The mere problem of housing the greatly increased number of pupils at the secondary level is upon us. All other problems, however acute, are clearly subordinate to the difficulty of providing enough actual physical space to operate the educational program at an effective level.

In the elementary schools, the entire situation may be summed up as identical with that in secondary education; but it became acute first at this level.

For the whole range of the twelve traditional grades, many emergency measures have had to be taken. Most widespread of these, as might be expected, has been the resort to dual time for portions, or even all, of the educational program. The remedy, building of more school plants to accomodate the growing younger population, was undertaken in due time by some forward-looking communities. Others found themselves caught in the web before they realized their predicament; such areas are even now just attempting to catch up with their housing shortage in the schools.

The new community, arising from the current industrial expansion, poses a different type of problem, but one that is more complex. Perhaps it shows best in such a typical case as Levittown, Pa., in a former farm area, a community produced by the Middle Delaware River industrial development now fully under way. Here there were no schools at all, because when the area was rural, the children had been transported to central schools far from this site. Here the problem is much more acute because new schools must be planned and built.

We have now attempted a broad survey, without particular notice of details, of the problems and needs that now confront our educational structure. These problems almost surely will continue to plague the communities and educators alike, probably more forcibly in the immediate future. The knowledge of their origin and their bearing is in our judgment, essential for any possible solutions to be developed—whether for one locality, an area, a state or the nation.

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PREVENTING GROWTH OF RACIAL GHETTOS

Nida E. Thomas

Racial ghettos are most often referred to when families are restricted to homes in a segregated neighborhood. "Today the American ghetto is the chief cause of racial friction. Most of our racial violence is rooted in the efforts of minority Americans to escape from ghetto living."¹

There is a long history of conflict that has arisen because minority groups have sought to improve their housing conditions by moving into neighborhoods formerly closed to them. Despite this conflict, thousands of American families are learning to live harmoniously in interracial neighborhoods.

This paper will deal with a case history of a community, where some of its citizens were ready to work for the elimination of a ghetto. Perhaps the best way to begin the Teaneck story is with a quotation from Shirley A. Siegel's pamphlet, "Better Housing For Everyone."

"The most explosive situation, your greatest publicity, your most significant showdown and the greatest test of your skill and strength will come when a non-white family has rented or bought into a white community."

Teaneck, New Jersey is by all standards of measurements a community which can boast of giving its residents the most for its tax dollar. In the section of the community to be included in this paper there are approximately 309 families. Fifty-one are Negro families and fifty-nine houses up for sales. Almost every house is owner occupied. There are only two small apartment buildings. Prices of the homes range from \$10,000 to \$28,000.

Less than twenty-five Negro families lived in the entire community until two years ago. These families lived on the boundary line of Englewood's 4th Ward, a predominantly Negro section.

Negroes have been able to move into the community mainly by (1) purchasing through *an agent*; (2) directly from the owner, several of whom wanted to sell to Negroes to spite their white neighbors; (3) building their own homes and (4) through white and non-white realtors, some of whom were using the scare technique to get owners to sell to Negroes.

It was the activity of a few Negro realtors that really created

¹ The High Cost of Bad Housing—Reprinted and distributed by the National Committee Against Discrimination in Housing.

the panic and the desire on the part of some residents to prevent panic selling that makes this story unusual.

One morning the telephone rang in the League's office. The conversation went something like this: "I am Mrs. X from Teaneck. I have been advised to call your office to get white families to sell. I think it's a darn shame that agents have frightened these already scared white families into selling. Many had already put their houses up for sale because a few Negro families were moving into the neighborhood." The voice continued, what could the Urban League do to prevent this kind of realtor activity? Is it ethical for real estate agents to scare residents into moving out of a neighborhood?

As the conversation progressed, the specific request was to ask the Urban League to talk to the Negro realtors, since it was believed that this door-to-door canvass created the desire of residents to run out of fear of having a non-white family as a neighbor.

Assurance was given that if the League could do anything, white residents would work in what ever way they could to prevent another all Negro area.

Before any definite commitments were made as to what the Urban League could do, the executive did two things:

1. She requested the white resident from Teaneck who telephoned to get as many facts as possible on the number of Negro families that had already moved into the area and the streets on which they moved. Further requested that, the resident see how many neighbors she could get to attend a meeting in the office to talk about what was happening.

2. The executive decided to talk with a select number of non-white and white realtors known to the agency as friendly and fairly open-minded and the Negro realtor whose company was mentioned as starting the panic selling campaign.

REAL ESTATE DEALER'S ATTITUDE

The white realtors indicated that they were aware of what was taking place. Listings of some of these houses had been made with their companies. They honestly admitted that they were not able to interest prospective white buyers in purchasing in the area. They further said that white families would not knowingly buy in an area where Negroes were also buying in any large degree. They were not "going out of their way to sell a house to a white family until they knew what was going to happen."

Upon talking to the Negro realtors, an interesting thing happened. One realtor became insulting and indignant. He demanded to

know what right the Urban League had to question him about selling houses. After all he said, "We are able to sell good houses to Negroes. If you want to do something about housing, why don't you concentrate on getting the Negroes out of the slum dwellings in Englewood?" We hastened to assure him that he was correct in thinking that the Urban League was not in the housing business. We were further aware of the need for helping to correct a very bad slum condition, but that helping people in a community to learn to live together harmoniously was also the League's business and to this cause we were dedicated.

Within a few days the resident submitted the data requested. These facts, with the reports on the realtors, were presented to the Board of Directors. The Board had to decide whether it would work on a problem such as this in a community not yet served by the agency, and how much time should be given by the executive to such a project.

The Board appointed a board committee on Changing Neighborhoods, and instructed the committee to help the executive work out a plan of action for the Teaneck residents concerned.

While the committee found a convenient time to meet, the executive was in constant touch with the residents of Teaneck, in an attempt to create a friendly relationship.

Further efforts were made to find out what the residents were thinking and saying. The reaction of the residents fell into three categories: fear, disgust and panic selling. It was fear to those families, who for economic reasons, could not afford to move elsewhere; disgust to those families who liked their neighborhood and would welcome a few non-whites, but did not want to live in a minority, that is, a white minority community; panic selling and the desire to run for those who would rather lose money by moving elsewhere than to live even a block or two from a Negro family.

The one question uppermost in the minds of a majority of the families was "will my property value go down because Negroes are moving into the neighborhood?"

Of course, there was the popular thought that Negroes would want to socialize with them and some had already witnessed the marriage of their two or three year old son or daughter to the next door Negro boy or girl. The Board committee came up with the following suggestions for action by the residents:

1. Organize block meetings to discuss the problem and bring it out in the open.
2. Get in touch with your association of ministers, making them

aware of the problem and its implications, and supplying them with written material which they can use in their churches.

3. Discuss changing neighborhoods at PTA meetings.
4. Supply information to your local newspaper.
5. Expose the name and practice of the salesman so he will not use your name as "bait" to get other people to sell.
6. Contact the Division Against Discrimination on how to cope with the current problem in your section of the community and,
7. Display signs in your windows which state you are not interested in selling your home.

The above points may not have been all that the League's committee could have suggested, but it was decided to suggest something that the people themselves could carry out without a lot of outside interference. Our committee further believed that a super-imposed program by the Urban League would not be as effective as when the residents were working to correct the situation, with our assistance.

ACCEPTANCE OF THE LEAGUE'S SUGGESTION

The residents who sought help from the League accepted the suggestions favorably. They contacted friendly people on each block whom they thought would agree to "hold a meeting in their homes, to which only residents of that block would attend."

The League helped work out an agenda for conducting a block meeting. We prepared a block meeting kit, which consisted of several pieces of literature and a mimeographed question and answer sheet prepared by members of our committee. These questions were based on reports that had come to the attention of the League relative to property values. We kept both the answers and questions simple and direct to the point. A few of the questions and answers were:

Q. Why are Negroes moving into formerly all-white neighborhoods?

A. Mainly because there is a short supply of houses available to Negro purchasers. When the housing supply is limited, Negroes move into any area where they can buy decent housing.

Q. Granted the Negro needs a place to live, can he not find living space in traditionally Negro areas?

A. The Negro who can afford better living conditions is not likely to find the housing he wants in the old, predominantly Negro areas. Above all, the Negro knows no reason why anyone should suggest to him where he must live. There are various income groups among the Negroes, some are desirous of living in decent neighborhoods commensurate with their income.

Q. The salesman who rings your doorbell may say that all the properties in the block will decrease in value because Negroes were moving into the neighborhood, and that it would be wise to sell quickly. Is this so?

A. This can happen if it is made to happen—When he says the presence of Negro home owners will lower values, he is exploiting race prejudice in an attempt to induce people to sell. If he is successful, panic selling occurs, and prices are likely to drop. Evidence shows however that in the long run, values are not depressed by racial neighborhood mixing.

WHAT DID HAPPEN

- Five block meetings were held within a month. After each meeting, someone in attendance wrote a letter to the editor expressing a favorable opinion about living in an integrated community. Some made reference that the Urban League supported that point of view.
- Material was compiled by the Urban League and distributed at these meetings.
- People started contacting all residents about attending block meetings and talking about the situation in the open.
- White residents began to know their next door neighbors a little better and more confidence was established among themselves.
- Signs were placed on homes of those persons who did not want to sell.
- By gaining more confidence among themselves, residents interested in working out a solution to the problem—began to think about an interracial council.

A note of interest should be injected here. Up to this point, the Urban League executive had not attended any of the block meetings, even though all plans for them were worked out in the League office. No Negroes had attended any of the block meetings. The reason—the white residents would not express themselves as freely if Negroes were in attendance at the meeting. Whereas the executive was aware of this, she made it very clear that the group could never hope to work out a successful solution to their problem unless non-whites were included in the planning. And further, that the longer it was put off, the harder it would be for the committee to include Negroes in the planning.

The meeting to set up the interracial council, now known as the Teaneck Civic Conference, was held in the home of a Negro family, who were very popular in the neighborhood.

There is now a permanent organization in the community. They

have worked out a set of principles by which they plan to show real estate and others that their community is stable and democratic. Their principles are:

1. Maintain stability of the community and avert panic selling. (To convince ethical real estate men that the area is stable—that white persons will also buy in the neighborhood).
2. People can live together in harmony.
3. Maintain and improve the level of civic services and,
4. Help people carry on the tradition as "good Neighbors" that has set up Teaneck as a model community.

Because the people in the community are working to do these things 24 hours a day, it has attracted national publicity through:

- Newspapers
- NBC-TV—Dave Garroway's TODAY
- Red Book Magazine
- Look Magazine

The local Urban League has been a background part of all this activity. Our chief function was that of a community resource agency. We knew that the people in the area needed to be reassured that they must take the lead in working out a solution to their problem. This we were able to accomplish.

As a resource agency, it was necessary for the League to: reassure those who wanted to support integration; give guidance but not dictate; have its services available. It was looked upon with suspicion by the fence sitting white families; was accused of using the situation to get publicity; was friendly, kept the facts straight; was accused by realtors of operating out of its area. It informed other organizations as to how they might help; and carried on continuous research.

It has been very gratifying to report that none of the National affiliated organizations in the field of Human Relations has attempted to give any sort of help without consulting with our office. This holds true also for TV and national magazines.

FUTURE OUTLOOK

I would like at this time to say that a very definite pattern has been set up for other communities to use, although the problem isn't entirely solved. Our experiences so far have proved that only a common sense approach is practical. By that I mean, the people with proper guidance can work out a solution to any neighborhood problem, any educational program designed to prevent panic selling, in a neighborhood where the residents take the lead in solving the prob-

lem. The program must embrace the white families, so that panic does not set in and a wholesale selling wave result. It must embrace Negroes, too, so that they do not attempt to move en masse into a white neighborhood; and it must embrace real estate men so that they do not deliberately set about creating panic in a white neighborhood, and further, they do not arbitrarily attempt to set up a new segregated area.

The only magic formula I can give at this point on the basis of the case I just illustrated is: the solution of such a problem is determined by the effort joined in by minority groups, churches, women's clubs, veterans' organizations, civic and social work organizations and able community leadership.

Nida E. Thomas is the Executive Secretary of the Englewood Urban League, Englewood, New Jersey.

THE SAN BLAS SANS JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Carol Cordes Smith

As the little Cessna throbbed over the dark virginal Panamanian jungle one thought kept recurring like the chorus of a Greek tragedy—"Why, oh why didn't I think to bring along my bottle of insect repellent!"

I had never lived so intimately with an aeroplane engine; I seemed to be part of it as my pulse beat in rhythm with the motor. Over, in and around the instrument board were pictures of the Virgin, the saints, and many holy medals.

This cross-isthmian flight from Panama City to the island of Aligandi in the San Blas Archipelago was to take me, a New York City-bred grandmother, a little less than two hours. The intrepid Balboa spent twenty-five mosquito-bitten days crossing the Isthmus. The U. S. Army's crack jungle platoon completed "Operation Balboa" in nine and one-half days in 1954. My objective was not to attempt to establish another trans-Isthmian record; I was determined to learn for myself whether it was true that the Cuna Indians, a still primitive tribe inhabiting the San Blas Island, had no problem of juvenile delinquency.

I am very proud of being a part of New York City's "600 Program" for the rehabilitation of seriously emotionally disturbed, deprived, delinquent boys ages ten to seventeen. I began working with delinquents over thirty years ago at the New York Parental School for Boys. Could the San Blas Indians have "THE" answer I had been seeking all these years?

"Perhaps I shall soon find out," I thought.

After breath-taking landings on two of the smaller islands to deliver mail and packages we headed for an abandoned emergency U. S. Army air strip on a starkly nude, uninhabited island. As I looked at the pilot in dumb amazement he pointed to the beach where a long dug-out canoe was approaching. Two San Blas Indian girls in their colorful tribal costumes complete with nose rings were paddling. Their passenger, dressed in faded Marine combat cap, shirt and khaki pants jumped ashore.

"Good morning! I am Dr. Clyde Keeler. No doubt Jungle Jim who arranged this expedition for you told you about me. May I present the regrets of Dr. Iglesias. He could not meet the plane as

he was called to another island on an emergency and I am taking his place."

Sufficiently recovered from shock to be able to respond properly, I thanked Dr. Keeler, assured him that my briefing had included nothing beyond the facts that my plane would be leaving the local airport in Panama City at 6:45 a.m. and that I would be returning the same day—and added that I was certainly more than glad to see him!

As we were paddled over to Aligandi we exchanged introductions. I told Dr. Keeler of the reasons for my trip and he informed me that he was spending his sixth summer on the islands gathering the final research for his forthcoming book on the Cuna Indians. "It is being published this fall by the University of Georgia Press," said Dr. Keeler, "under the title, 'Land of the Moon Children'."

As we jumped ashore and made our way leisurely to the school and home of Dr. Iglesias, no one paid the slightest attention to us. Tiny, barefooted women wearing native dress and nose rings and carrying naked black babies passed us in the narrow lanes between the huts but their eyes refused to meet mine as I smiled in attempted greeting.

"Why are these babies all so black?" I asked.

"They have been painted by order of the tribal medicine man to confound the evil spirits which brought the epidemic of measles to the islands," answered Dr. Keeler.

"Why do so many children have these filthy-looking rags protruding from their noses?"

"The little girls wear these until such time as their fathers or husbands give them gold nose rings," was the reply.

We saw a surprising number of albinos. Did my white hair and skin mark me as one, too?

We reached the Escuela Colman, founded and directed by Dr. Alcibiades Iglesias, a native San Blas, educated in the States, and stopped to observe a class of boys being taught multiplication (in Spanish). There were no text-books, papers or pencils, but all eyes were on the young teacher and the blackboard. How did this young man achieve such perfect attention? Since there is no compulsory education on these islands, were these boys concentrating because they were motivated by strong personal desire to learn?

While I was being introduced to Dr. Iglesias' gracious wife, Marvel Iglesias, and presenting her with the gifts of crayon sets and candy for the school children, young girls in tribal dress began to gather around us. Each had beautiful molas, strings of beads, belts, head bands or other handcrafts to sell. Mr. Iglesias, using the Cuna

language, asked the girls to spread their wares on the ground and step back so as to afford me a better opportunity to choose.

"Won't I be creating a free-for-all when it comes time to pay for what I select?" I asked.

"No, indeed. As you choose each article give me the money and only the rightful owner will step forward to claim it."

And so it was—no pushing or shoving, no bickering or grumbling. The rules were simple—everyone seemed to understand them and all abided by them cheerfully!

In the midst of my buying project, a school bell rang, releasing a noisy, hungry throng. These store-clad youngsters begin their studies very early each morning, so the first recess is time out for breakfast. They scuttled past and scattered in the twinkling of an eye—except for one bright-eyed exhibitionist who stopped long enough to say, "Okay. Hello! Okay."

Dr. Keeler very generously offered to conduct me on a tour of the island. We passed a group of children not attending school who were working a primitive sugar cane mill as a cooperative project.

Next we came to a hut with along dug-out canoe propped up in front. Dr. Keeler explained that in this hut a puberty ceremony was in progress. The canoe would be filled by her female attendants under the supervision of her grandmother. This "cleansing" ceremony would go on for days while the naked child sat and shivered. There was no question of discontinuing this tribal custom because of the discomfort or even illness involved or of the expense entailed in the coming-out party which would follow. The mores of the tribe offered sufficient control to preserve this and all the other unusual tribal customs.

"What *does* happen if someone breaks a rule?" I inquired.

Dr. Keeler said, "Let's go into the shaded interior of the Council House where the hearings are held. Each evening the Chief sits here in his hammock and all community affairs are discussed; infringements are weighed and treatment agreed upon with the entire adult male population present." (I could just imagine the entire female population tuning in against the flimsy side walls.)

One of the most severe punishments, it seems, is to be banished from the islands.

I wondered just how many of us would be likely to go astray knowing in advance that justice would be meted out inevitably before nightfall—with no possibility of postponement of the case or appeal to a higher court?

Was the absence of delinquency due to the fact that Cuna adults,

for the most part, presented non-delinquent behavior patterns which the children could well emulate?

I had read about the wooden uchus or medicine dolls used by the Cuna Indians and so inquired of Dr. Keeler as to their use and whether there were any available.

"Uchus are used as spirit retrievers in the cure of disease," said Dr. Keeler. "They are of many human shapes, representing any personality that might be considered powerful. For example, I have one in my collection in the form of Uncle Sam. I do not know of any originals still available, but it won't do any harm to inquire of the Medicine Man."

Fortunately, the Medicine Man had an old one which had cracked and was therefore no longer powerful. I was very pleased to be able to buy it, especially when I discovered it was a likeness of General MacArthur!

Next we visited the local version of the 5 & 10 housed in a palm-roofed hut exactly like all the others. On the almost empty shelves, we saw bolts of brightly colored cloth, spools of cotton, needles and other items. Most interesting was the contrast between the native cash register, a floor bin containing the coconuts used as money, and the modern white refrigerator run by a gas engine, which provided the ice for making Cuna hokey-pokey.

It was getting well into the late afternoon when we began strolling back to the "ferry" landing. We heard a singer intoning a repetitious melody accompanied by a rhythmic rattle.

"Look into this hut as we pass by," said Dr. Keeler. "A young mother is singing a lullaby."

A young woman rocked her naked black-daubed baby in a hammock and sang verse after verse,—"Your father is off to his finca on the mainland. Your little brother is at school. Your big brother is fishing. Grandma is cooking."

It seemed there were no idle hands for devil's work here. The girls I saw were assisting with the household chores. Boys not attending school were working on the mainland fincas with their fathers, or out fishing, or getting fresh water. The only men I had seen all day were the old medicine man and the albino who acted as the official who collected the 50 cent landing fee used for the upkeep of the old air strip. Men were permitted to leave the islands to seek employment on the mainland or on the U. S. Army bases, but females were never permitted to leave the islands.

Social control seems to have been the potent force here in limiting and directing the behavior of the San Blas. "Social control," as defined by Dr. Joseph S. Roucek,* "is a collective term for those pro-

cesses, planned or unplanned, by which individuals are taught, persuaded or compelled to conform to the usages and life-values of groups." One wonders what will happen to the social control seen in operation here when civilization eventually breaks through the barriers?

While awaiting the ferry girls my faithful audience watched in fascinated silence as I removed my shoes to pour out the sand. When I opened my compact to powder my nose, they hid their smiles and giggles politely, but when I turned the mirror so that each girl had a glimpse of her own reflection the giggles became uninhibited gales of laughter! It was a happy note on which to end a thrilling day.

In the shade of the Cessna I bid the kindly Dr. Keeler goodbye, gratefully assuring him that his expert guidance had made my trip rewarding beyond my fondest dreams!

Leaving Aligandi peacefully behind in the blue-green lagoon, I immediately began looking forward to my copy of "Land of the Moon Children" so that I could re-live this experience as often as I opened the book, for I realized that Grandma Balboa had reached the point of no return.

* Joseph S. Roucek, *Social Control* (N.Y.: D. Van Nostraand Co., Inc., 1947).

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SOCIOLOGY IN THE TEACHERS COLLEGES

Philip M. Smith

Judging from the evidence, the role of sociology in the training of teachers is becoming increasingly important.¹ Among the factors deemed responsible for this trend are (1) the interest in sociological topics stemming from the depression of the 1930's and (2) the impact of World War II upon educational philosophies, methods, and objectives.

The growing complexity of modern society has created a demand for teachers familiar with the functioning of social institutions during periods of unprecedented social tensions. Particularly essential is an understanding of the dynamic nature of our social order in an area of unparalleled scientific progress. The effects of the machine, of the mass media of communication, and of war upon society are problems calling for special study. Nor can the well-informed teacher afford to ignore the implications of phenomena having a direct bearing upon citizenship in a democracy, such as intercultural relations, the activities of political pressure groups, social stratification, and the social role of the school in the community.

What has become apparent to socially-minded educators is that the school cannot function in a social vacuum. As a basic institution, it must be concerned not only with transmitting the cultural heritage but with helping to determine the direction of social change as well. Certainly, in a democratic society the school has a major role in defining, disseminating, and applying those values which are inherent in the American tradition. Yet, in so doing, the school itself is a significant element of the sociological picture under analysis for it is part and parcel of the social order that gave it birth.

In relation to the foregoing, it is noteworthy that *educational sociology*² has emerged during the past few decades as an important subdivision of the general field of sociology. Among the assumptions underlying this comparatively new discipline are the following: (1) the foundations of modern education are primarily *sociological*; (2) the ultimate aims of education are mainly *social*; and (3) the basic

¹ This article is based largely upon the author's paper, "The Role of Sociology in Teacher Training Institutions," which was prepared for the Forty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Society held at Berkeley, Cal., in 1953. A follow-up study in 1954, more limited in scope than the original inquiry, revealed that sociology was steadily becoming more popular with future teachers as an elective subject.

² For a detailed treatment of various phases of this topic, see selected publications of Boyd Bode, Francis Brown, Lloyd Cook, George Counts, John Dewey, Dan Dodson, Charles Ellwood, William Kilpatrick, E. George Payne, Walter Smith, and David Snedden.

emphasis of education are upon the *socialization* of the child, the interrelationships of groups and institutions, and the role of culture as a factor in social control and social adjustment. Yet educational sociology is not so much a generic concept as it is the application of sociological principles to the field of education. In relation to the educative process it is therefore *applied sociology*.

It is noteworthy that *educational sociology* was, to a great extent, the outgrowth of an effort to offset what seemed to many the extreme individualism of the schools of a few decades ago. This situation was due in part to the emphasis which *educational psychology* had placed upon the nature of the learning process as an aid to teachers. The problem of individual differences received so much attention that there was a tendency to underestimate the importance of the relationship of the individual to the group as a whole, as well as to discount the effects of the social setting upon the child in typical learning situations. Then, too, many of the earlier specialists in educational research, who tended to over-emphasize the psychological approach, failed to understand the significance of class and status differentials in the school and the community.

It remained for the educational sociologists to undertake research designed to supplement that of the psychologists not only in relation to curriculum planning but in connection with methods of presenting subject matter in the classroom as well. Many were influenced, of course, by such outstanding educational philosophers as Dewey and Kilpatrick who perceived the importance of the school in helping to build a truly democratic society. Later, adopting certain methodological practices of sociologists who based their conclusions upon empirical studies, educational researchers made significant contributions in such areas as community survey-analysis, social stratification, and attitude testing. In all of these investigations, the school, of course, was the focal point about which the studies revolved.

Judging from current emphases in "education" courses offered in American teachers colleges, considerable applied sociology is taught in the aggregate. Excluding subjects devoted to such areas as "psychology" and "methods" (which largely overlap), the extent to which education courses use the findings of sociological researches is both significant and impressive.³ In practice, the line of demarca-

³ Questionnaire returns from 100 teachers colleges, supplemented by interviews and extensive correspondence, formed the basis for the major conclusions of this study. Data were compiled on the following topics: (1) type and number of courses with sociological content, together with current enrollment trends; (2) the role of educational sociology in the teacher-training curricula; (3) titles of courses most often taken by future teachers who study sociology; (4) evidences of the value of such courses in a practical way; (5) problems of interdepartmental cooperation; and (6) miscellaneous observations.

tion between "education" and "sociology" seems at times to become almost completely obliterated, especially in those instances where advanced students are assigned to practical research projects.

The current trend is not without its problems, so far as vested academic interests are concerned. Is "education" encroaching upon the domain of sociology in the teachers colleges? Or have the sociologists invaded the field of the "educators"? These are typical questions now being raised quietly, and often good-naturedly, on many campuses. In not a few instances is there evidence that sociologists with traditional training at the graduate level, who have served in other types of institutions, seem to resent what they consider the intrusion of "educators" into their field. But such a dispute in a teachers college should, of course, prove pointless, since a greater degree of correlation of content seems highly desirable. In many cases there are indications that arrangement have been worked out on an interdepartmental basis relative to content of courses with sociological implications which have met a definite student need. Since *educational sociology* may be taught in both the education and sociology departments, it can help to bridge existing gaps and eradicate professional misunderstandings in this respect.

There is another factor of interest in the foregoing connection. Some sociologists suggest that in certain institutions the educational courses with sociological content tend to become a mixture of disconnected topics which lack an integrating conceptual framework. Perhaps the chief responsibility for this state of affairs rests upon those teaching the courses rather than upon such factors as the organization of the curriculum and interdepartmental agreements. There is always the danger, moreover, of so diluting the content and quality of traditional sociology courses, in order to adapt them to the requirements of teaching curricula, that they may become of limited value to the student planning to do graduate work in this field. But, by and large, the great majority of respondents were of the opinion that sociology courses are being adapted to the need of future teachers without any sacrifice of standards.

CONCLUSIONS*

(1) As compared with the period prior to World War II, there has been a steady increase in the number and variety of sociology courses accepted in teacher-training curricula, although the trend is

*Schools of education affiliated with the universities were not included in the study. The distribution of the institutions in the sample by geographical area was as follows: Northeastern, 24; Midwestern, 37; Southern, 21; Mountain and Pacific, 18.

far from uniform, and expansion has been largely on an "elective" basis.

(2) As might be expected, the "introductory" course (principles) is the one most frequently offered. But courses in social problems, marriage and the family, juvenile delinquency and criminology, community survey-analysis, and race relations have been growing in popularity.

(3) Only about one-third of the colleges offer courses in "educational sociology" as such. There is a growing tendency for "education" teachers to use sociological materials to meet specific needs in this area of study, however, while much educational sociology is taught by sociologists in courses having a variety of titles.

(4) In about three-fourths of the teachers colleges the major emphasis is on interdisciplinary social science rather than on sociology, especially at the freshman level. Comparatively few institutions have separate sociology departments, with administrative autonomy, but the majority recognize their functional equivalent in actual practice.

(5) Despite the marked increase in the popularity of sociology courses as electives, on most campuses not more than from 3 to 6 semester hours of credit are required on teaching curricula. Because little sociology is taught in the public schools in the aggregate, as compared to history, students are not encouraged to specialize in this field in terms of a teaching minor. On the other hand, there is strong evidence that sociology courses are becoming more popular in the high schools and the teachers of the future must be prepared to meet the demand. Many college students who elect to take sociology courses in preference to other social science courses state that they prefer them because they seem more closely related to the practical problems of everyday life.

(6) About half of the colleges reported that their main objective in sociology courses was "preparation for effective living through a better understanding of human relations in a complex society," while only about one-fourth of them considered "preparation of students for greater usefulness when they enter the teaching profession" as being equally important as a goal.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Family and Fertility in Puerto Rico by Dr. J. Mayone Sytcos: Columbia University Press, 1955. 332 pages, \$6.00.

Whatever may be said of the national role of the Puerto Rican, particularly as far as his problems of immigration from the island to the mainland are concerned, no social scientist can gainsay his invaluable contribution to studies in demography, socio-economic mobility, inter-group relations and now, in *Family and Fertility in Puerto Rico*, attitudes toward sexual relationships and procreativity. The reasons for the interest of the social scientist in the residents of Puerto Rico lie in the unique geographical, historical and political factors which have shaped the lives of the inhabitants of this Caribbean island. The fact that it is a small area, some 100 miles long and 35 miles wide, offers an opportunity to study here in microcosm many of the social, economic, and psychological problems now being experienced in larger and more complex areas of the world, particularly in the underdeveloped countries. It is, moreover, as Dr. Sytcos points out, a society "in transition" between the centuries during which old-world cultural patterns prevailed and the turn-of-the-century introduction of U. S. economic standards and political attitudes. And finally it serves, as in this instance, as a "crude laboratory" in which to study "the lag between the reduction of mortality and fertility characteristic of currently developing economics."

This is the first volume of the final report of the Family Life Project of the Social Science Research Center of the University of Puerto Rico. The purpose of the study is to "explain the dynamics of child spacing in Puerto Rican families of low income and low education." The wealth of the data elicited by the interviewers is impressive, particularly in view of the delicacy of the subjects and attitudes discussed. As a result of the efficacy of the design and methodology of the study, such easy rationalizations for the high Puerto Rican birth rate as the influence of the dogmas of the Roman Catholic Church are proved less important than other social factors. It was found that such values as female virginity and *machismo*, "the drive in males to manifest their virility," account for early marriage and the high percentage of consensual unions. Birth control deterrents are not, as might be presumed, lack of availability of information or facilities, but, again, such patterns as male dominance and female modesty, with the resultant poor communication between partners. Whereas the individuals in the sample were aware of sources of information regarding

birth control and of the supplies in the Public Health Clinics, prejudice and misinformation prevent use of these resources.

As impressive as the general organization and execution of the project, including the interviewing methods, the interviewer training, interpretation of the data, and attention to detail, is the readability of Dr. Stycos' report. If style be the man, then here is one of clarity and integrity.

MARIE BARRY

Time and Life Magazines

Education Through Psychology by Hirsch Lazaar Silverman, Ph.D.
New York: Exposition Press, Inc., 1954. 58 pages. \$3.00.

The author of this publication has culled from his background cogent ideas pertaining to education and psychology. Part 1 is concerned with Dr. Silverman's views on the following subjects: educational psychology, contemporary scene in life and psychology, tendencies in social life and education, meaning of education, nature of thinking, language as a tool of thought, relation between language and thought, nature of appreciation, meaning of character, nature of learning, and the nature of habits and skills in learning. Inasmuch as each one of these topics merits an individual treatise, the thumbnail sketches merely whet the intellectual appetite for considering many of the author's statements.

Linked to the subject matter initially presented is Part 2, in which Dr. Silverman expresses his views concerning the educational process. He includes such topics as the following: the concept of curriculum, personality of teachers, verbalism in education, emotional outcomes of learning, analysis of motivation, and the psychology of methodology. The author makes a number of thought-provoking statements that challenge educators to review their role in affecting youth and our society.

In Part 3 Dr. Silverman both sums up his own conclusions and basic ideologies that relate to modern education and makes reference to the contributions of Plato, Rousseau, and Dewey.

This publication provides an incentive for individuals to think about the special role and contributions of education in our society. It can also serve as a motivating basis for a seminar in which one might discuss the pros and cons of the many stimulating ideas presented by the author.

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